
The Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

Vol. IV

OCTOBER, 1930

No. 2

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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY—*a Magazine of Theory and Practice*—is published monthly by The American Viewpoint Society, Inc., during the months of January, February, March, April, May, June, September, October, November, December.

Publication Office, 883 Broadway, Albany, N. Y. Editorial and General Offices, 13 Astor Place, New York, N. Y.

The subscription price is \$3.00 per year; the price of single copies is 35 cents. Orders for less than half a year will be charged at the single-copy rate.

Entered as second-class matter September 12, 1927, at the Post Office at Albany, New York, under the Act of March 3, 1879.

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PRINTED IN THE U. S. A.

Fort Orange Press, Albany, N. Y.

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EDITORIAL

The growth of education during recent years has been distinctly away from the formalized type of education characteristic of the nineteenth and early twentieth century. The reason for this development is, of course, the marked changes in our social culture, particularly in invention and mechanical devices.

These social changes have required a new interpretation of the social life and a new educational procedure to meet the changed situations. Moreover, during recent years educational theory has undergone marked changes and the modern theory underlying educational procedure has been deeply influenced by sociological considerations. Ever since Dewey wrote his *School and Society* in 1899 educational philosophers have emphasized the sociological interpretation of the educational procedure. We have, moreover, philosophers like Finney and Kilpatrick who are making distinct contributions in the field of the theory of education in its sociological aspect. However, progress in education has been seriously hampered by the failure of either educators or sociologists to provide a body of scientific data and adequate interpretation of those data relating to educational procedure in its sociological implications.

In other words, we have had no science of sociology adequately applicable to our educational endeavors. The weakness of our educational practice in this respect may be noted in many points but notably in the curriculum, in the school organization, in administration and supervision, and in the measurement of our results in educational procedure.

Our research in these various aspects of education has lagged far behind. Practically nothing has been done in social measurement. Miss Strang, in the September number of the *American Journal of Sociology*, has summarized the measures of social intelligence as follows:

"Social intelligence," which is frequently defined as "ability to deal with people," has two aspects, not necessarily related—the knowledge aspect and the functional aspect. Measurements of these two aspects have been devised: (1) paper and pencil tests to measure knowledge, and (2) real situations used as tests, rating scales, questionnaires, and photographs to ascertain the extent to which an individual reacts in a social way or possesses certain skills or traits judged to be useful in social situations. There is need for testing further the reliability and validity of these measures and for improving those which seem to be most useful in differentiating the individual who can get along with other people from the one who lacks this ability.

Although we have had some contributions in curriculum construction which have taken into account sociological factors, one of these being Rugg's reconstruction of the social studies, for the most part this aspect has been completely neglected.

The future of the development of education must take adequate account of these scientific sociological factors in order to ensure an education that conforms to modern social demands. This provides great possibilities in the field of scientific educational sociology for the future.

HIDDEN PHILOSOPHIES¹

WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK

Must one see the deeper implications of his thinking? That a man may think extensively and even fruitfully on a certain level and yet not take account of the presuppositions which underlie his conclusions is a fact well established. If these presuppositions in their proper bearings are found to work in one definite direction, the whole may be called a philosophy. If an author does not know about the philosophy thus present, it may well be called hidden.

These thoughts have been brought forcibly to mind in connection with a new book on "civic education" which I have been asked to review.² Two considerations brought about this article rather than an ordinary review: on the one hand the apparent inconsistencies between professed theory and an actual curriculum outcome; on the other the questionable implications of the professed theory.

Any book on "civic education" must be judged in part by the social system it tends to support. It is here most of all that presuppositions must be considered. The more one thinks about it the more it seems clear that any educational theory consistently wrought and applied will have consequences to the social *status quo*. One theory may facilitate, consciously or unconsciously, a control by the few over the many by upholding a general education in and for docility and acquiescence. Another may seek by indoctrination and the teaching of taboos to fix in the youthful and (relatively) helpless minds lasting attitudes along some chosen line, say in defense of a cult or in antagonism to democracy or capitalism. Still another may teach a thoroughgoing and open-minded study and criticism of all that concerns man, with

¹Published by agreement simultaneously in the *Educational Outlook* (University of Pennsylvania) and *The Journal of Educational Sociology* (New York University).

²Charles Clinton Peters, *Objectives and Procedures in Civic Education: An Intensive Study in Curriculum Making*. (New York, London, Toronto: Longmans, Green and Company, 1930), pp. x + 302.

the correlative implication that the remaking of thought and behavior patterns in obedience to such study is normal and proper. How far consistent theory and school can go along the road of results may be debated, but that there is a direction of influence seems clear.

The professed theory of the book under review we wish especially to study because it is a theory widely held in this country, particularly among those who hope to make education into "a science." We may thank Professor Peters for stating it so clearly. The implications are thereby the more easily seen. These implications cut very deep into life, so deep that we must postpone their "civic" bearings while we study their more fundamental bearings on experience narrowly considered.

This professed theory may be stated in general terms as follows: "Science" is even now establishing a "new education." The new plan and bases are analogous to those of mechanical engineering. Life and our world of affairs is the kind of thing that can in time—granted probable increase of knowledge—be foretold with fair accuracy. Man as a behaving organism can, also in fair probability, become similarly well known. So that we can expect to be able to foretell with sufficient accuracy the "preadjustments" man will need in this about-to-be-foretold world of affairs. In this view of life, the problems and uncertainties will gradually be solved by the capable few and the solutions as "preadjustments" be taught to the many. This is to be the "new education." Science is here put forward as all inclusive. The bearings of the underlying and conditioning presuppositions of the theory seem hardly if at all sensed. Curriculum making becomes on this basis a social engineering, a blue printing of whatever may be decided (by the same few) to be appropriate (for the same many).

That this is in fact the theory put forward by the author as the basis for the book seems clear from many explicit statements. In a chapter on "the meaning of education" we

find (p. 21) a section on "education as social engineering." Note these key sentences and the spirit they breathe. "The engineer first plans the object he wishes to make." "He sets up his plan in the form of a detailed blue print." "After he has perfected his blue print in every detail, his next step is to have the plan embodied in concrete materials." Note here for later use the words, "has perfected his blue print in every detail." And see how the illustrations of what is dealt with exclude any regard for self-directing personalities—"the bridge, the electric transformer, the railroad bed," all entirely physical, all completely under outside control. "Now," says the author, "precisely the same procedure characterizes the new education." And he goes on to tell (pp. 21-23) how the "educational engineer" will determine subject matter and method by "scientific experiment" "on the measured outcome of scientifically controlled parallel-group experimentation." Note throughout the scientific exactness of every procedure. We are dealing with practical certainties.

Throughout this presentation as the correlative of exact procedures the author thinks consistently in terms of exactly foretold wants. For such an education with its "almost unlimited potentialities," "we need only know what is wanted and, given time enough and sufficiently intelligent purposiveness, we can supply it within any reasonable degree." And the conclusion in blackfaced type: "In order therefore to plan a functioning education we need to know what the preadjustments are the individuals in question will need." "This necessitates blue printing the outcomes we want, just as the mechanical engineer blue prints the house or the electric transformer he wishes to build" (p. 26). And elsewhere (p. 23) the words pregnant with social implication: "The only factor that can curtail this unqualified control over the future conduct of the educand, and that can impair the force of our guarantee to meet specifications, is imperfect engineering." And the discus-

sion recognizes no permanent or inherent imperfection in the engineering.

From the foregoing we get the following reasonably implied characteristics of this theory: (a) Education is fairly analogous to mechanical engineering. (b) We can know the child's future and his future needs in the same sense that the engineer knows the needs which the house or the electric transformer are to meet and in much the same degree. Blue printing is an equal possibility in both cases. (c) The child is the kind of material to be molded to suit our wishes in the same sense that the house-building materials are at the disposal of the engineer. Or at least, the molding in the one case is analogous to molding in the other case. The one is now already exact, the other can become so. Psychologically and ethically the two cases are parallel and analogous. (d) It is reasonable to expect that the new "science of education" will by sufficient procedures tell us precisely (a) what "preadjustments" the child will need and (b) how to get them. The fact that many educators as above suggested accept substantially the presuppositions here made, makes it all the more important that we examine into their validity. Of the four characterizing features above listed the middle two, foretelling the future and molding the child to our will, contain the crucial presuppositions. The other two follow in greater or less degree from these.

Can the future be foretold? Consider life, experience, the on-going stream of human events. Can this be foretold in the way needed by the theory under consideration? Is this stream such that thinking can exhaust its possibilities? Shall we in time become able to foretell what difficult situations the child will later meet so as to be able to provide him in advance with "preadjustments" to fit them? Or may it be objected that "preadjustment" is not the right term or concept to use. Considering life as we know it, are "preadjustments" the way of meeting it? Do we not

rather need an intelligent grappling with events as they come? Could any aggregate of such "preadjustments" (contrived by somebody else's prechoice and predecision) without intelligent readaptation enable one to grapple with life's succession of difficulties? Do we not need to consider the life process more closely and see wherein and how it can and cannot be foretold? And accordingly wherein and how its successive situations can or cannot be met on the "preadjustment" theory?

To any one who looks with open eyes, life presents an on-going stream of novelly developing events. In each such event we shall recognize familiar elements, many such frequently recur. Two parts or aspects or elements we must then recognize in life, the novel and the recurring. If we consider the stream of events more closely, we can see that it is a "one-way" affair. Time always goes forward. What has been once done can never be undone. And if we consider the *total* content of the stream, no one cross section ever exactly repeats a preceding. In very literalness each successive total content of experience is novel.

Now what about foretelling? For one thing the continuance of the recurring elements can be foretold better than can the events in which they will figure. That my chair will be here to sit in for a good while to come is fairly certain. How long I shall sit in it much less so. The telephone may ring at any minute. In general the simpler the recurrent element the surer can its future conduct be foretold, in uncertainty man ranking highest. As regards events, the longer in general the interval of prediction the greater uncertainty as to detail. Also the more complex the situation, the greater in general the uncertainty of prediction. Putting together all we know, it seems reasonable to say that if we disregard total contents and fix attention on chosen and limited features, some events, as the needs of food, clothing, shelter, etc., we can foretell

with fair certainty. But these had to be consciously limited before we could foretell them. When I shall become hungry, how hungry, where I shall be, what food will be available, how it will be cooked, who else will be there, what will be said, etc.,—if we consider the *total* content we can foretell the future hardly if at all. In the stream of time the recurrent elements are always present but they swim along in more or less abiding but still ever-shifting combinations within the waters of uncertainty.

What then do we conclude about fore-preparing or "preadjusting"? In any precise sense it must in general be limited to the recurrent elements. It can be applied to events as such only in very limited degree. The farther we can get from man the better will preparing—in the sense of devising precise procedures in advance—apply; namely, best of all in dealing by machinery with nonliving matter, the ordinary manufacturing. Among human affairs we can best prepare in advance with the simplest elements, as spelling or the mechanics of typewriting, in which individual choice has little or no place. Beyond these, preparation in the sense of preadjustment is less and less possible the more complex the recurrent element dealt with. *Always, however, preadjustment is to an element not to a whole (typical) situation or event.* This means then that preadjustment is (in general) limited to those activities which we expect to use as tools or means in dealing thoughtfully with a novelly developing situation.

We come thus to dealing with the unpredictable, with the novelly developing event. A very simple case will perhaps serve for all. I am walking north. As I am about to cross an east-and-west street I see a motor car that looks as if it might swing into my street. I pause to see. It continues south. I then walk on. Here I could not have planned my walking in advance because I did not know about the motor car; and when I saw it, I had to adapt my movements to the development of its program.

In this instance there are many recurring elements which I know, principally for present purposes the street arrangement and motor-car movements. Walking, recognition of streets, and of motor-car movements I had prepared in advance. I had learned these in such a way that I could use them as instrumental elements in dealing with such a situation as that described. But I had to contrive on the spot, in terms of things then occurring, my plan of action. Both in contriving and in executing I used tool procedures prepared in advance by means of which I could so contrive and execute. Preadjustment holds then of instrumental unit-element adjustment procedures but not of the inclusive plan of action. For dealing with the novelly developing, plans (except as possible construction units) cannot be made in advance. The actual working plan must be made at the time as the novel situation develops itself. The process of actual contriving as the situation develops to view is thinking (in any proper sense of that term). What we need then as preparation for dealing with the novel and unpredictable is thought materials (concepts, etc.) and a stock of instrumental unit procedures from which selection can be made as necessity demands. But this is not "preadjustment." For the novelly developing situation preadjustment in any inclusive sense is impossible.

We are now prepared to say why we reject Professor Peters's professed theory. The future cannot be "blue printed"—never can be in the sense demanded by the theory. "Preadjustment" in that sense is impossible. No educational theory based on prepared in advance, ready-to-use, preadjusted solutions can take care of the life we live. Life in any sense that interests us, even the humblest of us "allowed to go around loose," consists of a stream of novelly developing events, with many recurrent elements to be sure, and we have to deal with these novel situations each on the basis of intelligent grappling at the time. Using unit elements prepared beforehand, yes; using suggested

plans made by experts, yes; but at every significant juncture each must contrive for himself as best he can, how he will meet the situation confronting him. If we are to meet life successfully, we have to meet it intelligently. And that means that the remaking of old patterns of all sorts is a never-ending affair. Preadjustment, no, impossible. Remaking patterns, yes, continually.

Suppose the preadjustment theory were accepted as the dominant educational program, what would it mean? There would result a division of people into two groups, the few to contrive (directly and indirectly) the preadjustments, the many to accept them. This doctrine of "leadership" and "followership" is already preached. But it would besides mean the destruction of democracy (in fact if not in name), the assumption of social control by the unscrupulous powerful, the using by these of school systems to teach docility under the pretense that most cannot think anyhow. Already our so-called "scientific" education leans too much in this direction. Already this "science of education" minimizes thinking, purposing, responsible acting, and magnifies "habit" instead with acceptance of leadership from above. The book under review again states with disconcerting clearness this general position. "One of the inevitable implications in the present [*i.e.*, 'scientific'] trend of educational theory is indoctrination." "All education must inevitably take the form of indoctrination . . . since all education consists in a set of preadjustments for meeting the problems of life" (p. 26). How such a position lends itself to teaching the young what the rulers have chosen needs no argument. And interesting it is to read in plain words that we are to "forge out individuals according to order" (p. 24). To this end we are to begin "with the present interests and outlooks of the pupils and to *manipulate these covertly towards ends known to be right*" (p. 26.) [The italics are mine to show how easy the process of social control already thus becomes.] The "known to

be right" is a delicious assumption of the kind of infallibility always professed by those who would "covertly" "manipulate" others.

That the author either sees or means such a social doctrine I think is not true. The presuppositions and bearings of the doctrine I judge he has not examined. It remains a hidden philosophy. In fact, strange as it may seem, the author does not use this professed doctrine at all in the rest of the book. No slightest use is made of "scientifically controlled parallel-group experimentation." In spite of the ridicule poured upon "tradition" and "arm-chair philosophizing" and of the promise of scientific experiments, it appears that the actual curriculum was made first by getting the judgments of one thousand advanced students as to what elements should be included (a good way to preserve the existing American *tradition* and, second, by the author's own reworking of these into what is then inaccurately called a "blue print" as found in the book. The theory seems to be that one thousand separate "tradition" and "arm-chair" opinions when "telescoped" somehow eliminate from each other the tradition and arm-chair elements so that the result becomes "scientific." In other words, instead of a "scientifically" made "blue print" curriculum "perfected" "in every detail" we have a pretty good common-sense "arm-chair"-made curriculum in which Professor Peters profited by the suggestions of a thousand practical schoolmen. When we read that "choosing one's mate in the light of more pertinent considerations" is one of the specific "pre-adjustment" items to be included, we know that this curriculum is not a blue print preadjustment affair at all—as far from it as possible.

There are many matters that would call for attention if space allowed, such as the positive teaching of "taboos" ("taboos and biases built up by subtly manipulating public opinion"), the entire misconception of why others are interested in child purposing (the conception of "spontane-

ous" growth as given on p. 25 is but a caricature of the doctrine opposed). In particular the complete failure to see the need and possibility of developing each person, beginning in childhood so that he can and more likely will base his life increasingly on the best available meanings that can be got. In fact the aim of building self-directing personalities seems far removed from the author's thinking.

In conclusion, we seem to find three parts to the book, each with its own presuppositions, but in no case do these seem to have been examined for their implications. There are present three philosophies but they remain to the author hidden, unexamined, uncriticized. The first is the professed theory, dropped as soon as it was stated. This it would appear is the author's first choice of what education should be. Its more significant presuppositions we have examined. They are as stated totally impossible of being put into operation. The implications here we examined slightly, but enough to sense their antidemocratic trend. The second is the working theory underlying the making of the actual curriculum. The author seemed to think that this was the same as the first theory. In fact it differs very greatly, being hardly more than a gesture towards "science." Its presuppositions and implications we have had time to consider hardly at all. The third philosophy is that included within the actual curriculum. It is, as its origin would lead us to expect, the common American attitude, democratic in profession, with all the uncriticized strengths and weaknesses of American democracy, differing almost *toto coelo* from the first professed theory of life and education. We seem thus to have reached an answer to the opening question. An author may not see the deeper implications of his thinking.

CRIME PREVENTION AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

HARRY M. SHULMAN

The Sub-Commission on Causes of the New York State Crime Commission has concerned itself, during the past several years, with group and individual factors in careers of juvenile delinquency and crime. Its researches have been restricted to a study of the offenders whose careers gave evidence of an habitual basis for their offenses. These have been found to embrace the common crimes of robbery, burglary, and theft, crimes against which the public has at present no recourse, save to police, courts, and jails:

The failure of our system of criminal justice to deter most of these habitual offenders from future crime, and the degrading spectacle of thousands of young men of college age in our prisons and reformatories calls for consideration of programs of crime prevention.

The primary concern of the educator is the normal child, of whom we have nearly a million in New York City. Of this vast number, only a tiny fraction constitute the problem group. No more than two per cent are out-and-out conduct problems, less than a child to a class. It is essential to remember this fundamental fact when we feel inclined to be too impatient with our public authorities for their seeming neglect of problem children, in their preoccupation with the vast mass of nonproblem children. Nevertheless this two per cent represents a very important group to those of us concerned with a program of crime prevention.

There is a variety of evidence to indicate that children who are problems in school contribute more than their proportion to the ranks of criminals. The New York State Crime Commission has conducted four studies in which pertinent findings with regard to the careers of school behavior problem children have been disclosed.

A study of 145 young major criminals, representing a two months' sampling of the intake at Sing Sing Prison and the New York State Reformatory, showed that the majority began their careers of delinquency as children, presenting behavior problems in school, and later becoming truants.

Another study of 251 young men who six to eight years before had been discharged from the New York Truant School where they had been committed for chronic truancy, disclosed upon follow-up that chronic truancy was in a disquieting number of cases, the first step in a criminal career. Fifty-one per cent of the boys required the attention of police and courts during the six- to eight-year period subsequent to their release from the truant school, in the following proportions: juvenile delinquency, 21 per cent; offenses of minor character, 16 per cent; offenses of felony degree of the type usually committed by professional criminals, 14 per cent.

Based on estimates of criminologists that one per cent of the population of the United States engage in some form of crime, this group of 251 truants were responsible during this limited period of from six to eight years, for fourteen times their expected proportion of major offenders.

If these figures are indicative of the trend among all former chronic truants (and the sampling of cases appears to be a true unselected sampling, not only by manner of selection, but with regard to racial and nationality composition), then of the 9,020 children who have passed through the truant schools of New York City since the establishment of the compulsory attendance division, 1263 have become habitual criminals. Such estimates are a challenge to the present system of dealing with school truants.

Each one of these truants could have been dealt with early in his school career. The average grade in which

their truancy became a serious administrative problem ranged from grades 2A to 3B. The entire group became maladjusted to their school surroundings at an age so early that preventive work could undoubtedly have been carried on at that time with a great degree of success.

A third study, dealing with 201 truant boys, disclosed that truants disliked academic school subjects and liked shop subjects, were failures in academic subjects and successes in shop subjects; came from broken homes in 45 per cent of the cases, a percentage higher than exists among delinquent boys known to the New York Children's Courts; lived in poverty; were retarded at least several terms in school and spent their hours, while away from school, on the streets and in motion-picture theaters.

The fourth study, dealing with problem boys and their normal brothers, will be referred to presently.

The chain of circumstances that link the adult habitual criminal to the school child demands that we consider the nature of the processes that mould human character into patterns so different from the average.

Our findings suggest that crime causation is best studied, not in terms of unit factors, nor alone in terms of groupings of factors within the individual, but primarily in terms of the social situations which define the status of the individual within his group.

Within the social world of the delinquent child we find several active social processes at work that serve to widen the gap between himself and normal children. Chief of these is the process of segregation.

We are often prone to speak of our adult criminal groups as persons "hiding in the cracks of society." Modern sociology translates this colloquial description of the criminal group into one which views them as members of a special social class, unreached and uninfluenced by the codes and standards of other social classes.

We think of the criminal as belonging to a special social class because his class has no place in our normal social stratification, and we cannot use, in dealing with him, the usual techniques whereby conformity to a class standard is imposed upon its members. His values are not our values, his goals not our goals. We educators and social workers hold up to him the values of truth, honor, of the respect of one's fellowmen, of happy family life, of the joys of industry—the ideals of our class. We find we cannot reach him, as these values have no meaning to him. Therefore, we fear him, for he is grown beyond our social control. Neither ridicule, nor soft words, nor threats will move him to seek the approval of a group with whom he feels no kinship. We stand abashed before him. He is a superman.

Every member of the next decade's quota of this especial social class is today an indifferentiated member of a wider social class—that of the public-school child.

It should be a matter of interest to educators to visualize the steps by which a child who is a member of this wide, undifferentiated class becomes a member of that special criminal class, and the steps whereby the values of the educator are rejected.

There are a number of social situations wherein the normal child experiences a group attitude towards his behavior and appearance. In all of these situations, after the initial adjustment period is over, the child feels either that he does "belong" or that he does not. In the course of this short paper, one can present but a single situation within which the determination of status takes place. This situation shall be that of the schoolroom.

Consider a child of six, prior to entering school. He has developed a very complex set of responses within a given family and neighborhood background; he has developed patterns of adaptation and of conflict. If he is a

problem child, patterns of the latter type will predominate. Temper tantrums, lying, appropriation of objects, excessive fears, night terrors, enuresis, food aversions, negativism, all traits which display themselves before the age of six, continue in problem cases, long beyond that age.

He is, if a problem child, a master of the techniques of securing his desires through noncoöperation. He is comparatively a free agent. If he lives in a slum neighborhood, and has ignorant parents—and the average habitual criminal has been thus handicapped—he is not troubled by a rigid schedule of sleeping, feeding, and resting intervals. He plays at all hours of the day and evening—on the sidewalks, and in the gutter.

The problem child thus arrives in public school with a bundle of habit patterns that already form his personality. He is at once subjected to new and unusual forms of restraint. He may not speak, save when permitted; he must sit erect, and not wriggle, nor play aimlessly with objects; he may not wander about the room, nor gaze out of the window, but must concentrate his sensory faculties on his teacher's voice and movements. He may not leave the room, save with permission, despite the peremptory nature of his needs. He learns these new rules slowly and painfully. There is no printed code or rule book, such as guides the freshman collegian. He learns through command and reprimand. Not only must he be subject to a strange set of rules, which restrain his impulses, but he must adjust to a large group of strange children. He is thrust into a situation wherein the processes of domination and submission proceed at a lively gait. He may become a bully and dominate, or shrink from the hurly-burly and show signs of excessive timidity.

One of the teacher's primary jobs in the earlier grades is to develop habits of conformity in her pupils. The normal child responds rather well to mere command and to tone

of voice; to a sharp tone where a mild tone has failed, similarly to the responses of a well-trained dog. The problem child fails to respond so easily. He demands attention, and makes use of all the techniques acquired in the preschool period, to gain his point through noncoöperation. The teacher is irritated, her authority is threatened. But life must go on, and a classroom of children must be taught. Thus ensues a protracted struggle of wits between the problem child and the teacher, a struggle which often ends only when the child finally leaves school for work.

The struggle is rich in the variety of its stratagems. There is no end to the moves which a distraught teacher and a problem child may make in outwitting one another. A list of actions compiled by teachers for Wickman, in his book dealing with *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*, includes such actions as whispering, inattentiveness, disorderliness, acting "smart," interrupting, cheating, failure to study, being neglectful, impertinent, careless, rude, overactive, untruthful, lazy, domineering, overcritical, meddlesome, and stubborn. In all, 48 traits are listed.

The preliminary defense mechanisms of the teacher rely upon devices aimed at direct subjugation. Our case studies develop a variety of these devices. Ridicule is a favorite one. A child is called stupid or dishonest or a liar; he is twitted regarding brothers or sisters with unsavory reputations; he is made to sit when others stand, stand when others sit; there is changing of seats, use of front seats, of seating boys among girls, of standing in a corner, of facing the wall, of requiring an apology, a confession, a promise to be good. These are devices in common use.

The ruler is often used on palms and knuckles. Chins are jerked, ears screwed and cuffed.

Thus far we have the ordinary process of securing conformity through coercion. Up to this point, the child is still a member of the normal group. Before proceeding to

a consideration of the process of segregation, let us take a glance, first at the type of child who is being subjected to this process of discipline, and second, at his behavior and interests outside of the schoolroom.

The problem child in school is often one whose adverse personal qualities and deficiencies have made of him a problem in group relationships outside of the school. If this is true, no amount of pressure within the classroom will change him for the better, and may even change him for the worse.

This challenge to the teacher is usually met by the retort that juvenile delinquency and crime are a result of breakdown within the home. The easy assumption, however, that environment works equally, or that all children will respond equally to parental supervision, is disproved upon closer view.

In its study of 251 truants the Sub-Commission on Causes found the majority of the factors which it studied threw no light on the reasons why certain families fostered criminal behavior and others did not. Carrying the inquiry to a still closer focus, we undertook to discover what factors seemed to be at work in causing juvenile delinquency among some members of a family and normal behavior among other members of the same family. This inquiry took the form of a comparative study of problem boys and brothers, the set-up of which has been described as follows.¹

The varying influence of environment is undoubtedly to be observed in every home, in every schoolroom, on every playground, for every child. But in order that significant differences might be discovered, a setting of the problem was devised that would bring out the maximum influence of variation in environment. The problem chosen was a comparison of the histories and mental make-up of a series of pairs of blood brothers, one member of the pair to be perfectly normal in conduct, as far as might be ascertained from investigations through varied sources and the other brother to be a severe conduct problem or a juvenile delinquent. In order that the

¹ A Study of Problem Boys and Their Brothers, Crime Commission of New York State, Albany, 1929, p. 11.

comparisons might be valid, a maximum age difference of four years was set as an ideal. (The actual average age difference was but two years and six months.)

The findings of this study disclosed striking differences between the problem and normal brothers. The problem boys were on the average duller in intelligence than their normal brothers, the median I.Q. for the problems being 75, indicative of borderline intelligence, while the median for the normals was 86, indicative of dull intelligence. Thus, borderline intelligence tended to be associated with delinquency.

The problem boys were, on the average, inferior to their brothers in grasp of school subjects, their median educational quotient being 81, as compared with $92\frac{1}{2}$ for the nonproblem boys. Thus, incapacity in school subjects tended to be associated with delinquency as well as with retarded intelligence.

School retardations were, on the average, $2\frac{1}{2}$ times as frequent among the problem boys as among the nonproblem brothers. Thus, repeated school failure tended to be associated with delinquency as well as with retarded intelligence.

The problem boys on the other hand were not only superior to their brothers in mechanical ability, but their scores were actually somewhat superior to those made by unselected New York City school children, 60 per cent of the problem boys exceeding the age medians of the latter. Thus, superior mechanical ability in an unfavorable environment tended to be associated with delinquency.

I might say at this point that there is a possibility that some of the success of the delinquent boys in picking locks, getting over transoms, and getting hinges off windows, might have been in some way associated with their superior mechanical ability. If it was, there is certainly the need for diverting this skill in other directions.

Every one of the problem group was a school-behavior problem. When rated by their teachers on the Haggerty

behavior rating scale, 91 per cent of their scores were above the average for normal-school children, in contrast to the less than average misconduct scores achieved by their nonproblem brothers.

Every member of the problem group was addicted to stealing. Practically every member of the problem group was in serious conflict with his parents or other members of the family. The normal group showed none of these qualities. The ambitions of the problem group were low in contrast to those of their normal brothers.

This study suggested that the problem group were undergoing a process of social segregation by virtue of their lack of attractiveness to normal people. They were less bright, less studious, less truthful, less honest, more addicted to temper outbursts and grudges than their nonproblem brothers. Had time permitted, it should have been most desirable to make a study of the play associations of the problem and nonproblem groups. No complete study of this nature was possible, but the indications are clear that the problem boys were in many instances members of troublesome gangs. There were evidences that the process of social segregation had gone so far as to require problem children to seek out the company of one another, not alone because of the pleasure it occasioned them, but because they had precious few others with whom they might play or with whom they were permitted to play.

At this point, let us return to the problem child in the classroom, who is being made to sit in the front seat, to stand against the wall, to hold out his palm to be slapped by a ruler, etc. In view of the deep deficiencies in problem children which we have just had disclosed, does not this rough-and-ready treatment by the teacher seem pathetic? Pathetic because it not only reveals the discrepancy between what is being done and what should be done for the problem child, but also because it reveals the bewilderment of the teacher in the face of obstacles beyond her ordinary

power to remove. The teacher at this moment represents society. And like society, when her primitive methods fail, she does what society does with those adults for whom ordinary controls and motives seem inadequate. She banishes the offender. Whether we like it or not, we must recognize that the philosophy of our public-school system in dealing with problem children is the same as that of the penal system with which problem adults are being restrained.

This is a matter to which our sub-commission has given considerable thought. It is a matter that we have discussed at some length and a matter on which we have rather definite opinions.

As I have indicated earlier, there is a strong possibility that the problem child, although bodily a member of the undifferentiated primary-grade class, may, by the time he is ready to become a truant, already have agreed in his mind that his interests and his associations lie not here, in the classroom, but there on the outside. He has probably already taken the attitude towards the classroom that an outsider would take.

But by the time that this child has become a severe conduct problem, the process of segregation is seen not only in his own attitude and in his occasional absences from the normal group, but is expressed physically through formal removal from the normal group.

It is not necessary to go into all the various processes by which this segregation takes place. May I remind you, however, of a few of these steps. There is, of course, first of all, the reference to the principal. The problem child may be placed in the principal's office where he may be lectured or threatened. There are quite a number of possibilities in that direction. If segregation to that extent is not sufficient, there is a special class. In many schools we have what are known as discipline classes in which the problem children are grouped under teachers whose capaci-

ties lie more in the direction of ability to repress than in the direction of mental hygiene or psychology.

If that type of class does not suffice, we have probationary schools, three in New York City, where children attend for a full-day period, for as long a time as is needed, in the opinion of their principal, to produce conformity. These children, by the way, are usually referred directly by the principal of the school to the probationary school.

The Sub-Commission on Causes has no fundamental objection to the necessary segregation of a few abnormal individuals who are utterly not amenable to conformity within normal groups, but with regard to the probationary schools, it feels that analysis of the child's difficulties and an attempt to give treatment within the normal school set-up ought to be tried first, and such a thing as segregation ought to be only a very last resort for a very few children.

We have beyond the probationary schools the truant schools, where children are sent, not merely for day-school purposes, but are taken out of their homes and are made to live there for a period long enough to secure conformity. However, we have seen that 14 per cent of a group of these truant-school children became material for the reformatories and prisons.

Society, then, through the public schools, among other institutions, is aiding the creation, in our opinion, of a special class of offenders many of whom later come to be identified as the criminal class, by a procedure of more and more severe segregation from which there is no recourse, because the school system has no means of breaking up the vicious circle through other types of approach.

Let me briefly indicate what we believe some of these other types of approach ought to be by reference to recommendations made from time to time by the Sub-Commission on Causes. Among those that particularly apply to the public-school system are:

Schools can meet the problem of delinquency in many ways and should do so. The delinquents themselves require sympathetic, patient study by specialists in child guidance. The school curriculum should be adapted to meet the needs of delinquents lacking capacity for or interest in the usual subjects. Conflicts with school authorities require careful study and treatment rather than simply commitments to disciplinary schools. Clinic facilities should be set up within the schools to carry out such a program of prevention. Adequate provision should be made for the service of visiting teachers and for vocational guidance and placement. (1928)

Schools should utilize the superior performance ability of potential and actual delinquents by giving them education through the use of concrete materials. The potential industrial value of superior mechanical ability must be appreciated and the responsibility accepted for the industrial training of this group of children.

The Department of Visiting Teachers and the psycho-educational clinic of the Board of Education should have increased budgets and personnel. Money should be spent here rather than on probationary schools which represent an obsolete, punitive approach to delinquency treatment that is unnecessary with children so young as those in the public schools.

Steps such as the limitation of initial enrollment to children mentally capable of receiving graded instruction, or the adoption of a "constant-promotion-plan," or a combination of both with a vocational program in the upper grades, should be undertaken to eliminate the emotional disturbances and dislike of school engendered by repeated failures.

The causes of school-behavior problems require a more adequate analysis than is possible with the present system of conduct marks. For the present praise and blame system of A's, B's, C's, D's, etc., must be substituted a more significant description of behavior in terms that make possible the planning of corrective personality treatment, on a basis much wider than merely that of approval or disapproval.

Teachers should be taught, in the training schools, not only academic psychology, but a course in behavior problems which will enable them to maintain an objective and impersonal attitude towards delinquents in the classroom, instead of falling into emotional and unanalytical responses of displeasure. Teachers lacking in poise and understanding should not be assigned to schools where there are many delinquency cases. (1929)

The large number of disciplinary and behavior problems among school children indicates the need of psychiatric and psychological clinics in schools for study of behavior problems and truancy, and for the adaptation of the curriculum to meet the mental capacities of these children. (1927)

Because of the defective home life, extent of criminality among parents and brothers, the number of broken homes, and the great proportion of working mothers among delinquency cases, any program for their supervision must include a subsidiary program of education and rehabilitation for their families. It is recommended that the work of *visiting teachers* be expanded to include the families, or the service of family welfare societies be enlarged to do more intensive work with families of delinquents. (1928)

AN OUTLINE USEFUL IN OBTAINING THE MOTHER'S STORY

MAPHEUS SMITH

As part of the procedure employed in making case studies of young children, including precocious, "problem," and "normal" types, the accompanying outline has proved serviceable. The purpose of its use is to enable the mother, father, or some other person who is intimate with the child to record in accurate and complete form records and impressions of the behavior and personality of the child from earliest infancy throughout childhood.

The interest of the sociologist may demand that the picture given of the child be limited to a cross section of the child's personality at a given time, together with a more or less exact story of the child's life up to that time. On the other hand, the outline may be used also by the mother as a guide to serial recording of important behavior and situations throughout the child's earlier years, beginning with early infancy.

Since the outline is formed for unsupervised recording it varies from the more customary type of schedule in giving more attention to material that may prognosticate achievements for the child, and a position of esteem for him in the minds of others. This bias of the outline is serviceable for use with unusually bright children, and, at the same time, it serves to prevent the disturbances caused in the mother of a generally well-adjusted child when she is confronted with questions intended to discover material on misdemeanors or other behavior difficulties.

The schedule generally used for transcription of records by intimates of the child is given with blank spaces for answers to queries, but the most complete pictures are to be had from a running account of the individual, expressing the material in such a space as seems advisable to the

writer. The belief we have in this method is founded on the results obtained when a perturbed individual writes the story of his life. The material in such cases is often extremely revealing, and often shows mechanisms and patterns of behavior that are not to be had in strict replies to the questions in a schedule.

Another advantage of this type of outline is the fact that mothers show willingness to write about their children, when the mothers would not be willing to give any sort of story about themselves. The use of the life-history outline has been found to depend for its success on a certain conflict state in the person approached, but the mother with the "normal" child has proved to be fully as willing to write about the personality of the child and his accomplishments as the mother of the gifted or problem child has proved to be.

It has been the custom thus far to use this outline as but a part of the total procedure in studying individual cases. Interviews with the child, with the mother, and with other intimates of the child are no less useful than was the case before the outline was organized. Nor is the testing of intelligence or emotional activity by means of standardized scales diminished in importance. The parent's detailed written story is to be considered simply as a valuable means of completing the picture of the antecedent factors that influenced the child before he was brought into his first contact with the sociologists.

GUIDE FOR THE MOTHER'S STORY OF THE CHILD

I. FAMILY BACKGROUND

1. *Present Family.* Describe the entire family as it is today, giving names, ages, and vocations of members. Describe their personalities. Give an estimate of all the members, and describe their attitudes towards each other and towards the child. Include accounts of others in daily contact with the child; for example, aunts or nurses.
2. *Family History.* Particular Individuals: Paternal Grandfather: Age, if living, or at death; country, town, and State of

birth; education, favorite studies; principal residences; occupations; intelligence; special tastes, gifts, or mental peculiarities; character, favorite pursuits, amusements; criminal acts; undesirable associates, antisocial habits, "queerness"; prominent positions held; prominent personages counted as friends; attitude of writer and family towards paternal grandfather; any other item that is a tradition for the present family or to the child. Give the same facts for paternal grandmother, maternal grandfather, maternal grandmother, father, mother, and all others who have had intimate contact with the child, or about whom he has been told.

3. *Relations of Family to Child.* Describe the relations of the above named persons to the child, what they have expressed about him from birth until the present, how much they have cared for him, how he feels towards them, and their attitudes towards him. Give everything they have said or acted about him that you think is significant in any way. Have they stimulated or inhibited him beyond the usual amount a child receives? Has he been told he is brighter or duller than other children in the home or outside; has he been told he is "bad" repeatedly, that his habits and associates should be changed? Are there any "great occasions" in the family that the child is known to enjoy, or that center around him in particular?

II. DEVELOPMENTAL HISTORY

1. *Data on Birth of the Child.* Child: Date of birth; place of birth, city and state; weight at birth, general health at birth. Mother: Condition during pregnancy, especially mental and physical strain (give especial attention to shocks during this period, such as great sorrow, fear, disgust, anger, as well as thrills of beauty, pleasure, or extreme happiness you remember); unusual incidents and complication at birth, parental attitudes towards the coming of the child.
2. *Child History to Two Years.* Was a "baby book" kept? Age of creeping; describe manner of creeping; age of walking; age of dentition; feeding of baby, breast or bottle; infantile diseases; sleeping habits; irregularities as to food and sleeping; habits of elimination, when and how established.
3. *Child Growth.* Persistent food fads; persistence of bad sleeping habits; persistence of enuresis, measures used to prevent it; persistence of other infantile elimination habits; regularity of growth; any period of rapid growth? Did child like to sit up late; did child show excessive energy in any direction? Care demanded by child in daily life, and in illness; habits of thumb-sucking, nail-biting, other habits, methods of correction; defects of sight, of hearing, of speech; any tantrums at any stage of development; frights, fears, terrors; accidents, or operations;

childhood diseases (in every case give age of child during illness, duration of illness, severity, child's reaction to the disease, its after effects, any repetition of the disease); punishment: body punishment, talks about his mistakes, scolding, shaming the child, other methods; reaction of child to punishment: sulk, pout, act sullen, other reactions. (Give these facts for each sort of punishment.)

III. INTELLECTUAL AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

1. *Interests.* Give account of play interests from the beginning; interests in other children, in adults; scholastic interests; interests in reproducing or constructing objects seen, or sounds heard; tell what he likes to talk about or to hear others talk about; interests in punishing animals or children; destructiveness; does he collect or preserve objects? Does he act as a young policeman, keeping other persons obeying rules? Does he try to help those in trouble?
2. *Education.* Education by parents, nurses, brothers, sisters, other relatives before attending school; nursery-school experiences; kindergarten, when begun and ended, experience there. Grammar school: attitude towards school in general, towards teachers, towards classmates, towards school work; school record in detail, by years, including difficult and easy subjects; interrupted schooling, cause; private schools attended; other education; difficulties of control at school.
3. *Friends and Associates.* Is the child stimulated by his father, his mother, or any others in home? Avoidance of child by father, mother, or other member of home; awareness of child of this attitude; is any one habitually harsh with him? Encouragement or inhibition in anything; child cared for by aunts, nurses, brothers, sisters, or others; does he talk more freely with these than with parents? Does he get his chief stimulation and pleasure in social life from parents or from these others? Children as friends or habitual associates from the beginning until now; does he prefer to play with children or adults; expressed attitudes of child to others or of others to child; describe neighborhood life around present home, including types of people, foreigners, or steady well-to-do families. What is child's reaction to the neighborhood? Give data on former neighborhoods and child's reactions to them; does he desire to return to them to live?
4. *Reading.* Did the child begin reading before going to school? Who taught him? Extent of reading; how long to read a book; comments to adults about his reading, cautions of adults about his reading; comments about his reading to children; stimulation of elders to read; amount of stimulation; has his reading been directed? Chief fields of reading from beginning and dura-

tion and sequence of them; chief field of reading now; why have others been neglected?

5. *Intellectual Stimulation of Surroundings.* Reading to child; classical music; other music; radio; exhibition of pictures; careful speech heard in his daily environment; good speech demanded of him; do adults "talk down" to him? Poetry read to him, stories told to him; likes and dislikes for any of these forms of intellectual and artistic stimulation; stimulation to try to reproduce any of these types of activity, or to enter into appreciation of the beautiful or noble things around him; kinds of heroes and noble deeds impressed on the child; attention given to him by productive personalities, such as artists, musicians, inventors, scientists, writers, public men; reaction of child to these influences; talk of the family about desire for child or for any other member of the family for ability or fame in any intellectual or artistic pursuit; any stimulation of careless or pernicious nature, such as language, acts, pictures, or music.
6. *Evidences of Special Ability.* Precocity: Did you notice anything unusual about his early walking, or talking; was it much better, more efficient, or more perfect than that of the average child? Has this precocity been maintained, or is the child advancing more slowly now? Give anecdotes of how you felt and acted about his improvement or lack of improvement; was he slow at first and unusually rapid in development in learning or in some other trait at a later time? Give your idea of the cause of the change; games of adult level or above his age level that he has learned to play perfectly or in part; describe such cases fully, telling how much he was stimulated to play them; tell of any other activity he seems above average in, giving all possible details; does he play contentedly alone, invent games, draw, model with clay, play tunes on the piano, invent tunes, sing, whistle, hum? How well can he do these? Who taught him? Does he make toys or other articles, or invent machines, or draw diagrams of machines? Has he unusual memory, or poor memory? Has he talent for acting, pretending, mimicking? Tell some of his "bright" sayings, together with their circumstances; is he praised by any one for these sayings? For other accomplishments? Reaction to praise; do members of his family fail to praise him for accomplishments? Is he praised by others not in his family for his talents? Has he attracted the attention of well-known persons with his abilities and accomplishments? Has he had training in any of these talents, or in any other special lines, such as music, or expression, in which he has shown no talent? Does he make rhymes, tell tales, create stories? Does he show unusual reasoning ability and insight into problems? Does he ask questions? What sort? Does he ask questions of curiosity about people? Does he "gossip" about people? Does he ask questions about nature

or about the world in general? Give detailed illustrations of questions and answers made by persons in the family. Does he try to find out the answers to his own questions? Are there any difficulties resulting from his desire to make things? Does his interest in anything dominate him and exclude other things? Has he been crushed by indifference of any one when he is showing ability or interest in any of these intellectual subjects? Is he hindered in any of these things by any of his daily associates? (It is highly desirable for the mother to go into details concerning these facts, giving exact ages, and profuse accounts in anecdote form of circumstances, persons, and what was actually done. All actual results of activity, such as drawings, poems, and so on, should be preserved.)

IV. PERSONALITY OF THE CHILD

1. *General Rating of the Child.* Is he punctual, methodical, systematic, or the reverse? Does he finish things once begun or drop them? Quickness or slowness; effectual or ineffectual in what he does? Does he make up his mind rapidly; indecisive or hesitant? Is he impulsive? Give result of this trait. Self-willed or easily swayed? Hold grudges? Restless or dissatisfied? Nervous (give circumstances)? Secretive and reserved? Shrink from criticism, or from praise? Self-satisfied? Strong emotions, anger, envy, aversion, jealousy, fear, love; do they last long? Tactless or blunt? Make friends easily? (Complete data is desirable in all these cases.)
2. *Specific Data on Personality.* Tell of any qualities of leadership or followership exhibited by the child, in play, in bad temper, in pleasure, or in sympathy, including the persons involved and the circumstances of the occurrence; average position held by the child in his contacts with children and adults, both in his family and outside; anecdotes about his ego-centrism or interest in the feelings of others; self-consciousness; self-confidence, air of assurance; introversion, tendency to sulk; effect of nicknames and other unpleasant titles, and statements derogatory to his physical, mental, or social nature; his own idea of the part he plays in the life of his family or of his playmates or both; willingness to adhere to self-imposed rules, or rules imposed on him by others, or rules he agrees to; independence of thought; dependence on the statements of others as facts; physical courage in the face of danger apparent to him; ideas of right and wrong; mistakes and their effect on him; reasons for mistakes the child gives, either voluntarily or involuntarily; evidence of desire to please every one, or lack of interest in the attitude of others; ambitions for the future; tendency to live in the future, when content or dissatisfied with the present; stimulation of associates that causes him to consider the future and plan for it; things that

please and disgust him most; instances of lying; give purpose, convincingness, reaction of child when caught; truancy from home or from school: causes, reaction to being caught and his relations with the family immediately afterward; any attempts to steal, reactions to discovery and to corrective treatment; disobedience, character, frequency of occurrence; temper display, causes, violence of child's behavior, cause of passage of spell, origin, methods used by family to overcome habit. (The greatest possible detail is needed in the material on personality.)

Note: In writing the story of the child the practice should be to write full descriptive accounts rather than to answer questions in a few words. Concrete descriptive material is more significant than your own ideas about whether the action or trait is good or harmful. Abundance of material is extremely valuable.

A LOGICAL APPROACH TO EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

JOHN M. BREWER

What about the present social life of young people as the basis for an exposition of the field of educational sociology? Is not the approach through the study of these social relations logical, rather than that through the study of grown-up society? I should suppose that the aim of educational sociology is to prepare teachers to guide children in all their present common social relationships and thus to prepare them for the relationships of adult life. Why not then begin with the actual coöperative activities of children and youth?

Almost universally the books and the courses on educational sociology are treated from an adult standpoint. If the present textbooks on this subject represent the logical approach then we may fairly state that the sociology of education should ignore the individuals who are being educated. Perhaps the word "ignore" is a bit strong, but the reader himself may, through an inspection of tables of contents and indexes, judge whether or not there is any basis for this criticism. Almost universally it will be found that the common social relationships among normal children are given a distinctly subordinate position in the treatment, and in many cases are wholly omitted. There are occasional paragraphs about boys' gangs and one or two books give a page or two to clubs and student government, but no text purporting to deal with educational sociology approaches the subject through the juvenile society and its organization and improvement as it exists at the present time in the life of the young.

Now the logic of the approach proposed lies in the fact that the learning of coöperative relationships by children in kindergarten, elementary school, junior high, high school,

and college will most certainly be the best basis possible for the exercise of coöperative relationships throughout life.

Children are not suddenly born into ability to coöperate. They learn it gradually through carrying on coöperative relationships, whether awkwardly or not. If such social relationships were nonexistent in juvenile life no amount of theoretical study would prepare them for social living at the age of school leaving. The youngsters who learn to manage an entertainment, the boys who learn team work in athletics, the girls who arrange all the details for a school picnic, the pupils who organize and conduct the affairs of a club, the students who work together as members of a committee, and those who act as officers of the student government are in the very process of learning the skills needed in social relationships as they exist in the adult world. Or more logical still, there is no reason why the child's world with its individual and coöperative activities should not be given the same recognition of reality as we give to the world of adults, of which we seem so proud.

The corporate life of children and youth would form an absorbingly interesting subject of study. Young people coöperate in athletics, in boys' and girls' clubs, in Sunday schools, summer camps, school clubs, debates, dramatics, school journalism, recreations of all sorts, musical organizations, organized and unorganized play, scouting, miscellaneous experiments with work, and in the official or unofficial regulations sometimes designated as student government. In these various activities and many others, in addition to the coöperative classroom work so often used, boys and girls begin to experience the actualities of living together and begin to learn the principles of social relationships.

In addition to activities more directly concerned with the school every youngster has his social relationships in the home, and the task of being a good member as a child in the home is by no means an easy one. He needs guidance in such a task and if the students of educational sociology

will study his tasks they will contribute more than they do now to the solution of the guidance problem in the home. The school child is also a citizen of town, city, county, State and nation. He has laws to obey, and official relationships to observe, and in many instances he coöperates with adults and with his fellows in the discharge of these relationships. Again, in his early experiences leading to vocational discovery, he sets up relationships with employers, adult workers, and customers: the social relationships of a boy who delivers newspapers would by itself make an interesting study in juvenile sociology. The boy's or girl's recreational life is full of social relationships and these are rather different from those of adults in their recreations. In the care of his person and the preservation of health he has many interests and activities involving relationships with others.

It would appear that the field is ripe for a harvest of interesting investigations and for the preparation of a new kind of textbook, not only in educational sociology but perhaps in some other as well, as for example, in the case of civics, textbooks in which should doubtless begin with student government plans instead of with an exposition of adult citizenship. This study of student control through student government is of particular importance just now, for the reason that of all the difficulties of living together the regulative relationships are the hardest. Democracy is still a young and tender plant and its successful growth depends very much indeed upon the intelligent application of scientific study and analysis in the solution of its problems. It has always seemed to the writer a wonderful thing that our country can go forward with its gigantic experiment of Federal and State Government when the schools offer such an infinitesimal amount of actual preparation for citizenship. The field of educational sociology can make a contribution to the teaching of civic relationships among children, as a preparation for better forms of civic relationships when a well-prepared generation has come upon the stage and assumed the places relinquished by those

whose chief method of control is imperialism or dictatorship.

Educational psychology has somewhat avoided this wrong emphasis upon adulthood. There are many studies in the psychology and mental hygiene of children, though too often still the textbooks on educational psychology, as do those in our own field, fail to make the logical approach. The field of sociology is rich with values in the relationships among children and youth. These studies in sociology should deal, however, with the normal and usual, since out of such relationships must we build the structure of satisfactory adult relationships. Abnormal situations related to juvenile delinquency, feeble-mindedness, and the like, may teach us important lessons if we match each problem with effective proposals for solving it. But the students in our classes in educational sociology should be concerned chiefly with teaching children how to get along with each other and how to organize these normal relationships into forms helpful for the development both of the individual and of the group.

A study of juvenile relationships may logically be used as the lens through which to view adult relationships of a similar character. Thus, *d*, a discipline problem in the system of student government may be utilized to explain a national discipline problem, *D*, such as the control of law breaking, and perhaps also a problem of international discipline which is being considered by the World Court.

Every argument based on the word "educational" in the title of our subject would seem to point rather clearly to the logic of the position here maintained. It will perhaps be said that I have ridden roughshod over definitions and distinctions, as for example, that between social relationships and government, but my query persists: Since we are dealing chiefly with young people in our educational institutions is it not a logical approach to educational sociology to begin with the social relationships of youth? The writer has stated his case dogmatically in order to make it clear, but he welcomes discussion and contrary opinion.

DO YOU KNOW YOUR LIBRARY?

HUMPHREY GAMBIER-BOUSFIELD

Statistics show that more people are using the libraries now than ever before. Of these, professional people comprise the largest group, but those engaged in trades and in business are seen in large numbers in the public libraries of the country. College and university libraries show an enormous increase in the number of volumes issued to those engaged in professions. Teachers are availing themselves of the facilities of the university libraries to an unprecedented extent, the majority being engaged in some form of research work.

The libraries are called upon to furnish information of a varied nature. The student may want to read for pleasure; more often definite information may be desired which can be answered with material in the book collection, in the special reference books, in periodicals or, perhaps, in theses. Most of these students are very busy people. They are frequently engaged in a long piece of work and often their time is limited.

Unfortunately, these people usually know little about a library and many go about in a dazed and bewildered condition trying vainly to find some material that will help them. At one side of the room they see a desk whereon is the word "Information." Making for the desk, they ask the reference librarian some vague questions as to the library having anything on this or that topic. The librarian wishes to help the students all he can. Certainly the library has material on the subject. To get at this material, consult the card catalogue. The periodical indexes will mention any articles published in the magazines dealing with the particular topic. There are a number of reference books on that subject; these will furnish useful bibliographies; but, first use the card catalogue. With that the

busy reference librarian must start another novice in the use of the library on the scent of information. Lack of time prevents the librarian from actually looking up the material. He can only direct the student and place material in his hands; most of the actual work must be done by the borrower.

The student goes to the catalogue as directed. Now, he has often used a catalogue, so he should not experience any trouble. Looking through the cards, he comes across an item which deals with his subject. He fills out the call slip, takes it to the proper desk, and waits for the book. Soon the slip comes back but no book appears. The librarian informs him that he has not copied the catalogue card correctly; he has copied down the name of the author, but the title is entirely incorrect because, he is told, the subject heading has been used instead of the title of the book. This error is corrected. The librarian suggests that he look for material in the United States section of the catalogue. After much hunting he gives up in despair, finding that there are no less than three United States sections, one marked United States (Official); another, United States (Subjects); the third, United States (Titles). In desperation he returns to the information desk, realizing that his knowledge of the public card catalogue is decidedly faulty.

The majority of people who use the libraries know almost nothing about the main index and directory of all the books in the collection—the catalogue. Every library in the country uses virtually the same method of listing the books in the catalogue. If the individual cannot understand the catalogue sufficiently well to learn what the library has on any particular subject, much of the most valuable material will be permanently lost to him. A parallel situation is seen in the student of medicine who lacks even a rudimentary knowledge of Latin. A mass of valuable literature on medicine remains a closed book. This lack of information regarding standard library practices is even

more serious for the professional man or woman. A teacher is interested in a far broader field than that of medicine. The teacher deals with the ever-changing thoughts of mankind, with human nature and its manifold reactions to situation and environment. This is the substance of literature. Then there is the mass of current material on topics of daily interest, teeming with the activity that goes on about us. The storehouse of this wealth of literature is the library; the key to the storehouse is the physical and very practical catalogue.

Reckless waste of valuable time in looking up data and in accumulating material for study is entirely unnecessary. If those who use the libraries know the general principles underlying the cataloguing of books which, fundamentally, are uniform in libraries throughout the United States, they will learn the technical language of their profession and the entire resources of the library will be at their disposal through the agency of the card catalogue. A short time devoted to the consideration of practical suggestions on how to use the library efficiently will, in the end, be the means of conserving the valuable time of the student.

The card catalogue is the index and the directory of the whole book collection. The catalogue should be consulted to ascertain whether or not the library has the material which is wanted. If a person is doubtful of his ability to find material in the catalogue and therefore asks the reference librarian if the library has such and such a book, valuable time has been wasted. The librarian may know that the library has the book but it is the borrower who must get the class mark, and this can only be found in the catalogue. Once more the borrower is confronted with the inevitable and mystifying catalogue. Now he must find out how to use it. In doing this, he might as well learn how useful the catalogue may become and what a time- and labor-saving device it may be if its uses are known.

The first thing to remember about the catalogue is that almost every book is listed in three different ways:

1. A book is listed under the name of the author. If the name of the author is known, the book may be looked up by this method. As an illustration, assume that you want the book, *Why we behave like human beings*,¹ by George A. Dorsey. The first card for this book would look like the following:

QP34 Dorsey, George Amos, 1868—
.D71 Why we behave like human
beings, by George A. Dorsey. New
York and London, Harper and
Brothers, 1925

Fig. 1

2. A book is listed under the title if the title is distinctive or unusual. If the name of the author is not known the book may be looked for under the title. Titles are arranged in the catalogue alphabetically. Fig. 2 shows a title card for the same book.

QP34 Why we behave like human
.D71 beings.
Dorsey, George Amos, 1868—
Why we behave like human
beings, by George A. Dorsey. New
York and London, Harper and
Brothers, 1925

Fig. 2

¹ In library practice common nouns in titles, except the first word, are written with small letters.

3. A book is listed by subject. This is useful when the author and title are not known. The only thing known is that the book deals with, perhaps, psychology; one can find the book by looking for this subject. When one wants to know what books there are in the library, the subject headings are consulted. The subject headings are arranged alphabetically. Fig. 3 shows a subject heading card.

QP34 Psychology

.D71 Dorsey, George Amos, 1868—

Why we behave like human
beings, by George A. Dorsey. New
York and London, Harper and
Brothers, 1925

(The underlined word is in red ink)

Fig. 3

The author, title, and subject cards are arranged in one alphabet in a dictionary catalogue.

Most libraries require borrowers to fill out a call slip giving the author and title of the book desired, and the call number or class mark; also, the borrower's name and address. The author's name, the title of the book, and the class mark must be copied exactly from the catalogue card. Failure to make an exact copy of this information often results in the book's not being delivered.

It has been found that the errors, which are made each day by a great number of persons, fall into three groups. The principal mistakes are listed below.

Error 1. Copying the class mark incorrectly. The class mark must be copied exactly. The symbols will mean little to the borrower but they are all-important to

those who actually got the book from the shelves. These symbols are a shorthand which tells exactly where the book is to be found.

Error 2. Copying the subject heading instead of the title.

At the top of the catalogue card, usually in red type or underlined, is the subject in which the book is classed. Do not confuse the subject heading with the title. The author and title of the book appear below in black type. (For subject heading card see Fig. 3.)

Error 3. Failing to notice an analytic entry. If a volume contains several important and separate works, a card is made for each of these. The individual cards made for each of the separate works refer to the volume in which they are to be found. If the borrower wants one of these works and asks for it by its author and title, the desired work will not be delivered. One must ask for the volume in which the separate work has been bound. Suppose one wants a classic such as Tottel's *Miscellany*. If the catalogue card is read through, it will be seen that it says: In Arber's English reprints, volume 4. To obtain the *Miscellany* of Tottel, therefore, one must ask for volume 4 of Arber's English reprints and not for Tottel's *Miscellany*.

Often, periodicals are much more useful than books. It is reported that when a fire occurred in a library, the librarian, realizing that part of the collection would have to be sacrificed, exclaimed: "Let the books burn but save the periodicals!" This librarian knew the value of the periodicals and how much harder it is in many cases to replace destroyed back volumes of periodicals than it is to replace books. Because of the rapid change in the world of thought, books which were once of practical value soon become merely interesting historical or literary documents whereas periodicals, on the other hand, keep up to the minute with news, discussion, comment, or criticism in the

field in which each periodical specializes. Students are well repaid when they make an attempt to keep up with periodical literature. Most interesting material may be found by looking over the periodicals on the current periodical shelves. To look for some particular article or for articles on some particular subject is another matter. One of the following periodical indexes will be of use for this.

The important indexes to periodicals are:

1. Readers' guide to periodical literature
2. Education index
3. Industrial arts index
4. International index to periodicals

Of these, the Readers' guide and the Education index are the most used by teachers.

In the Readers' guide, references are given to volume and page, to the exact date of the article and inclusive page numbers. It also indicates whether the article has illustrations.

Education index contains a complete author-subject index for all the important periodicals in the field of education. In addition to this the Education index gives a check list of professional books arranged by subject; also, lists of publications of institutions, schools, colleges, and universities; also, a list of books on tests and scales. Notes are frequently given regarding helpful pamphlets, etc., which can be obtained, often free of cost, from societies or from the Government.

The Industrial arts index is a subject index of engineering and trade periodicals.

International index to periodicals is an author and subject index to foreign periodicals as well as to American.

Many people experience difficulty in deciphering the abbreviations used in the periodical indexes. Below is a typical item taken direct from one of the issues of the Readers' guide. Following this is an explanation.

AIRSHIP factories

Zeppelin's American home; two world's largest Zeppelins for our navy will be built in our hangar at Akron, O., W. E. Burton. *il Sci Am* 141: 230-3 S'29; Same cond. *Lit. Digest* 102:35-6 S14'29.

This means that the article is to be found in the periodical *Scientific American*, volume 141, pages 230-233, issue of September, 1929. The article is by W. E. Burton and it is illustrated. The same article is contained in the *Literary Digest*, volume 102, pages 35-36, in the issue of September 14, 1929. Remember that the volume number is represented by the number before the colon, the pages by the number after the colon. An explanation of the abbreviations used is given at the front of each issue of the index.

Students frequently want such society or Government publications as:

1. National Education Association. Yearbook
2. National Education Association. Addresses and Proceedings
3. National Society for the Study of Education. Yearbook
4. U. S. Bureau of Education. Bulletin
5. Columbia University. Teachers College. Contributions to Education

In each of these cases, the material is listed in the catalogue by the word underlined. Students of education frequently have difficulty finding the "Contributions to Education," because this is not under "Contributions," but under Columbia University.

Item 4 in the above list brings up another matter which, if thoroughly understood, saves much time when looking for material. When looking in the catalogue for material dealing with New York (City), New York (State), or the

United States, the following is important. The same facts apply to both the New York section and the United States section. The United States section is explained below:

One set of trays is marked:

United States. (Official)

In these trays are listed official documents (material published by official departments, as: U. S. Bureau of Education. Bulletin) and material about those departments. Such books are also listed under the name of the author.

Example: In the tray marked: United States (official a-d) will be found such department publications (arranged by underlined word) as:

U.S. Bureau of the budget

U.S. Bureau of the census

U.S. Children's Bureau

U.S. Congress (and others)

For this material look first under U.S.; then under the key word as underlined. Cards for books about the U. S. Congress follow the cards for official publications and are listed on subject cards (illustrated, also, in Fig. 3). An illustration of this follows:

<u>U.S. Congress</u>	328
Brown, George Rothwell	B
The leadership of Congress	

To ask for this book, the author, Brown, and title, *The Leadership of Congress*, should be written on the call slip.

Another set of trays is marked:

United States (Subject)

In these trays is listed material about the United States in general. Example: Under the heading U.S. Descrip-

tion and travel, are listed all books on this subject, by author. An illustration of this follows:

<u>U.S. Description and travel</u>	917
Anburey, Thomas	A
Travels through the interior parts of America. . . .	

On the call slip, the author and title of the book should be given, not the subject heading.

A third set of trays is marked:

United States. (Titles)

In these trays are listed titles of books beginning with "United States" as:

"The United States oil policy"

Also: Publications of and about corporations or institutions, the name of which begins with "United States," as:

<u>United States steel corporation</u>	306
	C
Bergland, Abraham	
The United States steel corporation no. 73 (Studies in history, economics, and public law, ed. by the faculty of political science of Columbia University. vol. XXVII, no. 2, whole no. 73)	

Be careful to ask for this by writing on the call slip:

Author: Columbia University. Studies in history, economics, and public law.

Title: (whole no. 73.)

Periodicals are a good source of information, but another valuable source is the reference collection. Reference volumes usually do not circulate but are kept in the library for research. To give an idea of the variety of the subjects covered by the reference books, some of those in the English language are given here.

For those desiring information regarding British authors, there is the Dictionary of National Biography. American authors are given, with biographical data, in Appleton's Cyclopedia of American Biography. Information about contemporary people of importance can be found in Who's Who and Who's Who in America.

Helen Rex Keller's book, *A Readers' Digest of Books*, and the set known as the Book Review Digest, are useful for résumés of novels. The first of these gives complete synopses of many other forms of literature besides the novel. The U. S. catalogue with its supplements lists all books in print.

In the field of literature there is Allibone's Critical Dictionary of English Literature, the Cambridge History of American Literature, and the Cambridge History of English Literature.

For history there is The Cambridge History of the British Foreign Policy, The Cambridge Mediaeval History, and The Cambridge Modern History.

Those interested in the fine arts will use the Cyclopaedia of Painters and Paintings and Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians, or the Dictionary of Architecture and Buildings. In this group there is also a set called the Lives of Painters, Sculptors, and Architects, by Vasari, and Muther's History of Modern Painting.

Mythology is represented in a set entitled Mythology of all races. Those looking for plays, poems, or essays suitable in celebrations will find Schauffler's, Our American Holidays, a series of great use. The question such as: What happened on such and such a day?—can be answered in The American

Dictionary of Dates or Chambers's *The Book of Days*, the latter arranged by date.

Education is covered by Monroe's *Cyclopaedia of Education*; invention, by *A Popular History of American Invention*; religion, by the *Catholic Encyclopedia*, Hasting's *Dictionary of the Bible*, and the *Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics*.

Encyclopedia of general information include the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, the *New International*, and the *Americana*. The first is best for more scholarly articles, the second, the *New International*, contains many articles on small subjects, with many illustrations. The *Americana* is an encyclopedia of current events. For further and later information on current events the *Public Affairs Information Service* should be consulted. The *New York Times Index* will help locate material on the latest current events.

Information regarding government is best found in the *Cyclopedia of American Government*, *Legislative Manual of the State of New York*, and the *Statesman's Year-Book*. *Europa Yearbook* gives information on European governments. The *Statistical Abstract of the United States* gives many statistical tables.

Bartlett's *Familiar Quotations* traces phrases and proverbs to their sources in ancient and modern literature. Brewer's *The Dictionary of Phrase and Fable* lists names of real and imaginary characters in literature, explains many phrases, and gives much information on odd and unusual things.

The *World Almanac*, published yearly, gives valuable information with many tables of statistics on a great variety of subjects.

These are some of the most useful reference books. They should be used in conjunction with the card catalogue and the indexes to periodicals.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDITORIAL NOTE: *It is designed to make this department a clearing house (1) for information about current research projects of interest to educational sociology and (2) for ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field.*

Readers are urged to report their own research projects and to submit information regarding other projects of which they have knowledge. Suggestions as to methods of research will be welcomed and will be given publicity in this department.

From time to time this department will also make its readers acquainted with research resources in educational sociology. Contributions of this type from readers will also be welcomed.

It is desirable to make the program of research in educational sociology a coöperative one. To this end the names and addresses of those engaged upon research projects will usually be given in order that readers may exchange with them ideas upon related projects.

INSTITUTE FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH

The ninth annual session of the Institute for Social Research was held at the University of Chicago, on Saturday, August 20-23, in the new Social Science Research Building.

The purpose of the Institute was to permit expression of the most recent research that is going on whether such research is complete or only in the halfway stage. The discussion which followed each presentation served to bring out issues and difficulties which were valuable to others working in similar fields.

The main topic of the Institute centered about "cultural contact," but other subjects found a place on the program including reports on research in the Orient, nationality, the marginal man, psychiatry and sociology, urban and rural subjects, and scientific methods.

The new Social Science Research Building in which the conference was held is the first laboratory of its kind. It was dedicated on December 16 and 17, 1929, and the cere-

monies were attended by guests from various parts of this country and by three guests invited for the occasion from abroad: Sir William Beveridge, director of the London School of Economics and Political Science; Professor Celestin Bougle, of the Sorbonne, and Professor Albrecht Mendelssohn Bartholdy, of the University of Hamburg.

Many addresses were made both at the building exercises and at the special luncheon and banquet. Among the addresses, the following may be mentioned: Professor Wesley C. Mitchell's paper entitled "The Function of Research in the Social Sciences"; John E. Merriam, "Significance of the Border Area Between Natural and Social Sciences"; Sir William Beveridge, "International Coöperation in Social Science"; and Dr. Harold G. Moulton, "Coöperation in Social Science Research."

The new building contains the offices of practically all the instructors in social sciences. There is a handsome and spacious room for larger gatherings and several seminar rooms each with a great oval table. The officers of several journals, including *The American Journal of Sociology*, are in the building. Rooms especially equipped for statistical and anthropological research as well as rooms for display of maps and the working out of ecological projects are available. A lounge where tea can be served adds to the attractiveness of the new building.

A STUDY OF AMERICAN NEWSPAPERS¹

An analysis of the proportion of the total news space devoted to articles of foreign origin in 18 issues each of 40 American metropolitan morning newspapers. The chief aim was to determine the statistical reliability of differences between newspapers based on a sample of this size and the study is therefore to be viewed as an exploratory one, preliminary to a more adequate investigation on a larger scale.

¹ Statement furnished through the courtesy of Professor Julian L. Woodward, Department of Economics, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIAL RESEARCH

Dr. Neva R. Deardorff, Director, Research Bureau, Welfare Council of New York City, has formulated a statement as to the possibilities and limitation of coöperative social research.¹ Dr. Deardorff points out that the increasing necessity for carrying on continuing social inquiries from the standpoint of councils of social agencies and community chests. In previous years the social agency worked more or less alone in making studies of its problems but now it is realized that the questions raised by such studies dovetail with the results of other studies and call for further investigations.

Dr. Deardorff concludes that "if social research is to yield its best results for community welfare each study should be related to a whole program." Every community should have a general research program including the types of facts that it wants to know about itself, and when individual projects are chosen they should be seen in relation to the total situation picture. Dr. Deardorff's outline of the Possibilities and Limitations of Coöperative Social Research which follows, which was prepared for a meeting of the Boston Council of Social Agencies, is intended only "as a suggestive beginning of those processes by which research groups may delineate and clear their fields and perhaps their own minds in advance of formulating a program."

I. Should social agencies be entrusted with funds to carry on research?

1. Provision for auspices and leadership
2. Continuous supervision
3. Criteria of quality
 - a) Expert consultation
 - b) Sound method
 - c) Statements accurate and conclusions correctly drawn
4. Distinction between
 - a) Planning
 - b) Fact-finding research and the drawing of conclusions
 - c) The drafting of recommendations

¹ Published in *Better Times*, June 2, 1930, pp. 30-31.

II. Planning an inclusive research program for a community

1. Types of social inquiries now pursued

a) Inventories of social resources

1. For whole communities
2. For socially handicapped groups
3. For neighborhoods

Inventories deal primarily with quantitative features such as services rendered, personnel, expenditures, unit costs, limitations of intake, interrelationships with other services, geographical spread. Qualitative analyses using already accepted standards as measures may be a part of such inventory. The Russell Sage Foundation is soon to publish a list of some 2,700 "surveys."

- b) Descriptions of social problems—hardship, injustice, maladjustment, or other situations, thought to be "problems." Such inquiries seek to learn the extent, "the factors," and the antecedents of the problem. Illustrations: Juvenile delinquency, child neglect, child labor, child marriage, retardation of school children, desertion and nonsupport, working mothers, unemployment, old-age dependency, neglect of physical defects and of health needs, bad working conditions, neglect of play needs, etc.
 - c) Continuous measures of incidence of various forms of need: relief, health service and care in illness, child guidance, employment, institutional care for children, for aged, for offenders, etc.
 - d) Demographic studies, "human ecology," rural social groupings, including the human composition, the structure of social relations and social, geographical, and political boundaries of the community itself would seem to be fundamental to an understanding of any social condition or problem in it.
 - e) Studies of method. Study of method implies freedom to experiment and resources sufficiently flexible that programs, schedules, records, personnel, etc., can be rearranged from time to time.
 - f) Working demonstrations. The value of a demonstration as fact finding depends entirely upon the adequacy of its provision for measuring the result sought and analyzing the factors in success or failure.
 - g) Studies of social causation
 1. Inquiry into the past?
 2. Record keeping now that will furnish data in the future?
2. Selection of starting points in the pursuit of such a program
 - a) Advantages of large studies
 - b) Advantages of small studies.
 3. Integration of isolated pieces of work into the whole program

III. Some problems in coöperative research

1. Time and timeliness

2. Coöperative processes—confidential manuscripts, premature publicity, criticisms of existing standards
3. Cost and cost-accounting elements

In this connection attention should be called to a very interesting article by Dr. Ernest W. Burgess of the Department of Sociology of the University of Chicago on the topic "The Value of Sociological Community Studies for the Work of Social Agencies."¹ Dr. Burgess discusses some typical sociological community studies, taking up the growth of the city and its areas, basic social data, and cultural description and analysis, and points out the value to social agencies of such a study. An interesting discussion of Dr. Burgess's paper follows by Jesse F. Steiner on "Is the Neighborhood a Safe Unit for Community Planning"; by LeRoy E. Bowman on "Local Community Studies and Community Programs"; and by Elwood Street on "Some Community Uses of Sociological Studies."

Points of view represented in Dr. Deardorff's statement and Dr. Burgess's article indicate an increasing recognition of the necessity of studying the total situation in dealing with any human or social problem.

¹ *Social Forces*, June 1930, pp. 481-491.

BOOK REVIEWS

Curricular Problems in Science at the College Level, by
PALMER O. JOHNSON. Minneapolis: The University
of Minnesota Press, 188 pages.

Do prerequisite courses, so extensively given by colleges as basic to more advanced courses, actually function as such? Is the sequent course built upon the material taught in the prerequisite course? Are students right in their assertions that there is often no sequence value? Have these courses ever been carefully studied to determine the answer to such questions? Is the positive character of faculty opinion, as to the value of such courses, apt to be in inverse proportion to the scientific evidence in the case?

Professor Johnson's study concerns the answer to some of these questions with particular reference to general botany as a prerequisite to certain sequent courses in the College of Agriculture and Forestry at the University of Minnesota. Nine quarter credits in general botany constitute the present requirement at that institution. Certain of the conclusions reached are so striking as to deserve quotation:

"A comparison of the mean achievement score of students who had had General Botany 4-5-6, with that of students who had not had it in such courses as Farm Crops 1, Fruit Growing 6, and Vegetable Growing 32, revealed no significant differences. This is quite likely due to the fact that in these sequent courses the students are taught the botany deemed necessary for the pursual of the course within the course itself."

Professor Johnson's study of the permanence of learning shows that after three months the mean score on a delayed recall test indicated a loss of retention of 43.4 per cent; after six months 47.8 per cent. Other interesting conclusions are that "there was found to be no significant difference between the achievement of those students who took botany as a required subject and those who took it as an elective": "there appears to be some tendency for those students predominantly liking science to attain a superior achievement in general botany."

The general conclusion is that "the elementary course in botany has become greatly restricted with respect to its function as a prerequisite for the sequent courses in the College of Agriculture and Forestry." "Most of these sequent courses are really new courses in botany, more specialized, adding large amounts of new material and supplementing the elementary among them."

From the viewpoint of the thoroughgoing methods used in the study and the significance of its findings the reviewer regards this as the best curricular study on the college level that has so far appeared. May their tribe increase.

J. O. CREAGER

The Physical Basis of Society, Second Edition, by CARL KELSEY. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1928, pages xxii+526.

One who knew all there is in this book would have the equivalent, as far as information is concerned, of about fifty per cent of a college education. It would be just the fifty per cent that any young person ought to possess before he started studying any of the social sciences in their advanced forms. If all beginners in economics or sociology had the preparation represented by the material of this book their teachers would not only be spared an immense amount of time-consuming effort, but would be able to expound their subjects in an immeasurably broader and more edifying way. No better idea of its contents can be given than by copying a single column of the index: Mercury, Mesozoic age, Metabolism, Metals, Meteorites, Mice, Microorganisms, Microscope, Migration, Milk, Millet, Mink, Mitosis, Moccasin snake, Molds, Mole, Molecules, Mollusks, Molybdenum, Mongolian idiot, Mongoose, Monkey, Moon, Morals, Morbidity, Moron, Mosquito, Moth, Mountains, Mulatto.

HENRY PRATT FAIRCHILD

The Alien in Our Midst, by MADISON GRANT and CHARLES STEWART DAVISON. New York: The Galton Publishing Company, Inc., 1930, 238 pages.

This volume consists of a rather loosely coördinated collection of viewpoints on immigration, its consequences and control. The editors and co-authors have sought expression not only from contemporary writers but also from the recorded opinions and attitudes of many of the nation's founders, such as George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, and Alexander Hamilton.

The general theme of the assembled articles is about as follows: America no longer is able to offer opportunities furnished by nature, but only those resulting from human endeavor. The position of man as the short economic factor and nature as the long factor which characterized the nineteenth century is now reversed. Consequently there is a very real danger of actual displacement of American labor and its high standards by the cheap labor of southern and eastern Europe accustomed and adjusted to the lowest standards of human existence. The economic prosperity of a country cannot be divorced from sound morals, progressiveness, and political stability, all of which in our case are threatened by the alien undisciplined in democratic ways. Should a policy of unrestricted immigration again be followed as a result of a mistaken humanitarianism, it is pointed out that the struggle for existence of the newcomers would be mitigated, that of the natives would be intensified, while abroad the pressure of population, although temporarily relieved, would soon be as great as ever. The melting pot

is characterized as the greatest fallacy of the preceding generation. In Professor H. P. Fairchild's contribution it is stated that the incidence of restriction upon foreign nations should be governed by the specific incompatibility of their cultures respectively with ours. Dr. Dexter points out the nonassimilable qualities of the French-Canadians whose migration to New England has been stimulated by the application of the quota law to European peoples. Similarly other contributions point to the dangers of unregulated Mexican and Philippine immigration.

Politically the alien has long exercised an influence far beyond his numerical proportion. It is the opinion of D. Chauncey Brewer that blundering immigration and naturalization policies have placed the governmental machinery of the Union largely in the hands of an untrained and perhaps unfit electorate. E. R. Lewis and William Starr Meyers show the power which European prejudices and ideals exert upon the major political parties always apprehensive of the alien vote. This gloomy perspective is relieved somewhat by the assurance of H. H. Laughlin that the proportion of leadership by those bearing British blood is actually increasing as the proportion of British blood in the total population declines.

The chief criticisms which might be raised against *The Alien in Our Midst* are an apparent lack of coordination, frequent repetition resulting from so many statements based on the same subject matter, and the absence of any views presenting the other side to strict immigration restriction.

EARL E. MUNTZ

The Modern Family, by RUTH REED. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1929, 182 pages.

The author briefly surveys the history of marriage forms in order to discuss present experimentation with types of marriage in America. From this it will be seen that the book does not present data, except such statistical data as are needed to sharpen the significance of points made. The volume is rather an essay on saner attitudes we might take towards marriage. Noting the fleeting character of the sexual feeling on which marriage ordinarily rests, the author advocates social approval of the marriage forms now in experimental stages and not meeting general social standards. Her advocacy depends upon the growing evidence that monogamy is not suited to many and upon her own incisive objectivity in evaluating the factors in the marriage situation. She gives especial importance to the economic factors so closely linked to family problems, and makes quite convincingly the point that the new forms meet the needs of women in the professions and of men training for the professions, all of whom have necessarily to delay marriage in the interests of career. Here is a viewpoint cogently expressed and inviting the rumination of the thoughtful.

A. M. CONKLIN

Child Care and Training, by MARION L. FAEGRE and JOHN E. ANDERSON. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1929, 250 pages.

The way we are growing is perhaps indicated by a comparison of this new book for the parent with the old, reliable volume of Dr. Holt according to which many of our children were reared before the war. Dr. Holt dealt largely with the proper treatment of the child as a physical organism; the attention given to the child's social experiences was of minor importance. The present volume is more comprehensive in that the modern parent will find there all the necessary facts of physical growth and the norms with which to compare his child's development, plus what we know about mental growth and behavior. Considerably more weight is given to the child's social evolution than to any other aspect of his guidance and the book offers any enlightened parent the best of what is known about the psychology of childhood. To substitute this book for the earlier approaches to child training is to march with the times and to engage in the preventive program that has carved out for itself the goal of doing away with conduct disorders and all their unfortunate consequences. A challenging bibliography, put together by these experts in child welfare, is itself an optimistic indication of how far the scientist feels he can take the parent along with him in all that he is learning about children. The tone of relentless criticism of the parent is happily lacking in the presentation of this material. For that phase of parent education we appear to be substituting some confidence that parents will want to understand scientific child training and can, if the experts will educate as they go.

A. M. CONKLIN

So Youth May Know, by ROY E. DICKERSON. New York: Association Press, 1930, 242 pages.

The subtitle of the book explains the purpose in writing it: "New Viewpoints on Sex and Love." When we know further that the author is a director of the activities of young persons in the Order of the De Molay, it is patent that the book has a specific mission. It presents, in excellent fashion, the facts of physical sex and deals to some extent with the psychological concomitants of sex experience. The aim is clearly to give the reader wholesome, conservative attitudes towards sex and the problems it involves. Placed in the hands of the young boys joining the Order, the book will serve a highly useful purpose despite its narrow understanding of feminine psychology and its tendency to be too "preachy."

The author writes as if sex ideals in the present world were set and acceptable to the majority. His resort to logic in dealing with anything so surcharged with emotion as the sex drive is a familiar fal-

lacy. He writes of all the need for restraint, for instance, as if sex feeling were a voluntary matter and his idealism in consequence bears no reference to the changing world in which the young men of the De Molay Order will soon find themselves. He is brave who attempts at this time to plaster cast a set of fundamental ideals that are in a state of dynamic flow. The author does not do this; rather, he harks back to a safety that existed before the flow began. In the sense that his book ignores the transition period in which it has come to publication, its idealism will probably remain aloof from experience.

A. M. CONKLIN

Psycho-Analysis and Education, by BARBARA LOW. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1928, 224 pages.

This book was published in England under the title, *The Unconscious in Action: Its Influence Upon Education*. It is more adapted to an English-reading public than to an American one. The great majority of American teachers do not have the background of psychoanalytical literature which would make the terminology easily understood. The book does, however, give one a better understanding of the two most important processes in psychoanalysis; viz., the unconscious, both mental and emotional, and sublimation. The writer points out the great value of these processes to education, but the explanations are too brief, and the examples cited too few, to make the book of practical assistance. The reader is at times puzzled to know just what the unconscious includes. There is danger in attaching a deeper meaning to what is in a child's (unconscious) mind, and of setting up a mechanism which defeats its own ends. In America mental hygiene is at present being carried on to accomplish what the writer believes should be done by the processes of psychoanalysis.

The book points out some important ideals in the newer methods of education to enrich the personality of the individual and prevent abnormalities, but adds nothing new, aside from the psychoanalytical viewpoints mentioned, to the recent educational and psychological literature along these lines. However, the writer has clearly stated and carried out her purpose as stated on page 9—"to show the bearing—a vitally important one, I think—of psychoanalysis on education."

C. E. BENSON

Adaptability to New Situations, by SAM R. LAYCOCK. Baltimore: Warwick and York, Inc., 1929, 164 pages.

The title of this monograph will be recognized as a familiar definition of intelligence which the author has decided to put to the test. He reports a most interesting study founded on Spearman's principles of

cognition. Using some 2,630 eleven- and twelve-year old subjects and three tests which he carefully devised, the author reaches the conclusion that adaptability to new situations is not a definition of intelligence because never on any two occasions or with any two individuals are we measuring the same thing. The past experience of each individual causes his response to new situations to vary as the number of individuals concerned. The subjects tend to use associative reproduction in solving the problems rather than a genuine process of education, with the result that many fail of the solution. Success is positively correlated with intellect. In all the ranges of intellect, however, the extent to which transfer of training is lacking from one situation to another is astonishing.

The investigator has produced a careful piece of work described in delightful literary style. Quite rightly, he conceives one of the main purposes of education to be the supplying of useful, accurate method for adult problem solving. If his large group affords a picture of the thinking processes we have inculcated, education just falls short of being useful. High-grade defectives can get on by employing reproduction only; educative processes, which form the important next step, are employed only rarely by our most intelligent, a fact which throws a great deal of light on our difficulties with character education, with vocational guidance, and all our training for the use of leisure time. It will be some time before education ceases to be a process of hammering in facts and gives instead some attention to the methods of relating facts, but books like the present volume make invaluable contributions towards the setting of new educational goals. A. M. CONKLIN

Our Changing Human Nature, by SAMUEL SCHMALHAUSEN. New York: The Macauley Company, 1929, 510 pages.

The reviewer need waste very little time or space on a book written with such patent insincerity. One wishes that the author had just spoken these pages to his looking-glass. The part of the problem we cannot dismiss so lightly is the thirst of a reading public for this sort of half-baked innuendo. But a reviewer is scarcely responsible for remaking whole chunks of so-called civilization, is he?

A. M. CONKLIN

Negro Problems in Cities. A study made under the direction of T. J. Woofter, Jr. New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc., 1928, xiv+285 pages.

At a time when it seems to be the fashion to depict Negro life in a halo of idealization and mysticism it is especially refreshing to chance upon such a straightforward and accurate description of the Negro's

actual life conditions as is contained in the study of Negro problems in cities made under the direction of T. J. Woofter, Jr. The objective of the study is to interpret the colored newcomer to the city in terms of certain new factors in his urban environment. Part I is the work of Mr. Woofter himself and deals in a broad way with the Negro neighborhood in the city. A detailed account of the factors underlying the Negro trek to the city is given with special emphasis upon the neighborhood problems engendered by his sudden arrival. Social pressure and the passage of laws by the whites, and in no lesser degree the economic and social cohesion of the Negro groups, have always contributed to make racial separation a matter of fact. The intrusion of Negroes enjoying a better economic status into white districts is attributed to their natural wish to seek better places for homes, rather than to a vain desire to live in white neighborhoods. Segregation strikes deeply into the social life of the group, developing neighborhood institutions and businesses. On the other hand, it paves the way for neglect and exploitation as is often indicated by the lack of neighborhood improvements in sewerage, lighting, paving, and deficient educational and recreational facilities.

Part II by Madge Headly gives a detailed account of housing surveys in the Negro districts of eighteen cities. In general the equipment of most rental homes is the minimum required to induce the tenant to enter, which need not be much in an expanding Negro district because of the low standards to which the migrants from Negro districts had been accustomed. Owing to the relatively low wages of Negro workmen, segregation, and the consequent overcrowding in Negro districts, rent consumes an unduly large proportion of the Negro family's budget. Rentals are invariably based upon the amount the tenant will stand irrespective of the kind of dwelling or the equipment furnished, and this regardless of whether the landlord is colored or white. In common with the whites the Negro takes great pride in home ownership, but the high valuations placed upon properties in the segregated districts and the difficulties of finance have prevented many from rising from the ranks of the tenants. Particular attention is given to various constructive agencies such as the Octavia Hill Association, the Cincinnati Model Homes Company, Neighborhood Associations, and model housing projects for Negroes.

The Negro school problem is treated in Part III by W. A. Daniel. It has always been the policy in southern cities to provide a separate school system for colored children; in the North expediency seems to have been the factor determining whether or not separate schools should be provided. Among the Negroes themselves, it appears, there would be but little opposition to segregation provided equal educational opportunities were afforded, although some maintain that this form of segregation will but hasten the adoption of other forms. Admitting that the "mixed" school or class may afford much in the way of cultural assimilation and racial amity, it may also be the means of encouraging greater

racial friction, especially if the attitude of the teachers is unfriendly. Many of the problems that appear as school problems amongst the recent arrivals in the North are in reality personal or family problems created in various ways by maladjustment. Thus frequent removals result in frequent transfers from school to school and subsequent retardation; inadequate family incomes, necessitating mothers working away from home, result in unfavorable home conditions, truancy, and the early employment of children. In the South school funds are inadequate and the Negro schools are but a secondary consideration in their distribution, consequently standards are far below par. Industrial education in the high schools for Negroes is shown to be merely a makeshift. The survey indicated the excessive overcrowding, the general lack of sanitation, and the poor equipment of most southern schools. Even the new buildings for colored pupils are sometimes equipped with old heating plants, desks, manual training, and cooking room equipment taken over from the white school that had received the new equipment.

The fourth part of the study, dealing with Negro recreation in the city, is the work of Henry J. McGuinn. The inadequacy of recreational facilities is closely aligned to juvenile delinquency in colored neighborhoods. The facilities of large parks in the northern cities are generally accessible to Negroes, except in the case of bathing beaches, where joint use has invariably produced friction. Many cities such as Indianapolis, Louisville, Memphis, and Atlanta have separate parks for Negroes, but in few instances have swimming pools been provided for them. Philadelphia, New York, Buffalo, Chicago, and other large centers officially hold that playgrounds and recreation centers are open to all the people of the neighborhood, but in practice it is common to find some form of separation. In general, playgrounds in Negro communities are less numerous, smaller, poorer in equipment, and less adequately supervised than those for white children in the same city. To a limited extent the inadequate facilities in public recreation are supplemented by private recreational and character-building organizations, such as Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, churches, clubs, and settlement houses, but these efforts, usually the efforts of the Negroes themselves, are on a small scale, unrelated, localized, and reach only a fraction of the colored population. In commercial recreation the city is seen at its worst, for here the Negro, settled in segregated areas, is neglected and exploited.

E. E. MUNTZ

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Enrollment in High Schools

More than fifty per cent of the students of high-school age in the United States are actually attending high schools.

These figures acquire an additional interest when compared with those of 10 years ago, when such attendance was but 30 per cent, and with those of 25 years ago, when it was only about 10 per cent.

These facts are pointed out by the United States Office of Education in a statement in which the remarkable growth of high-school attendance during recent years is traced.

The first public high school was organized in 1821, but this type of school enrolled only about 10 per cent of the children of high-school age until 1905 or 1906. Within the next 10 years another 10 per cent were enrolled, and when a century had passed—1921—the 30 per cent mark was reached.

Although no general census has been taken in this country since 1920, a careful estimate indicates that 40 per cent of the children of ages 15, 16, 17, and 18 were enrolled in public high schools about 1923, and 50 per cent in 1928.

The rapid growth which was experienced between 1915 and 1925 seems to have been followed by a period of growth that is decidedly slower; so much so, that it is difficult to forecast how soon an additional 10 per cent of the children of high-school age will be enrolled in public high schools.

In 1927-1928, there were 18,116 public high schools, white and colored, reporting, in response to a questionnaire, an enrollment of 4,217,313 pupils—2,028,722 boys and 2,188,591 girls.

Enrollment by subject in public high schools has been collected by the Office of Education at intervals since 1890. During that year, data were collected showing enrollments in nine subjects: Latin, Greek, French, German, algebra, geometry, physics, chemistry, and general history. The expansion of the high-school program enables high schools now to report enrollments in about 250 different subjects.

The average number of pupils per school enrolled in 18,116 public high schools in 1928 was 233. In junior high schools the average was 598; in junior-senior schools, 305; in senior schools, 770, and in regular high schools, 164 schools with an enrollment of fewer than 50 pupils comprised 30.4 per cent of the total number of schools reporting, and they enrolled less than 4 per cent of the pupils in public high schools.

In 1928, the public high schools graduated 474,736 pupils—210,916 boys and 263,820 girls.

In regular high schools, 30.2 per cent of the graduates went to college and 13.3 per cent to some other institution after graduation. In

reorganized high schools 31.2 per cent went to college and 10.3 per cent to some other institution after graduation.

In every group a higher percentage of boys than of girls went to college, and a higher percentage of girls than of boys went to some other institution, such as normal schools and commercial schools.

In the 18,116 public high schools reporting, 182,637 teachers are employed, or 1 teacher for each 23.1 pupils enrolled.

Bettering International Relations

International coöperation and understanding are gradually developing social phenomena. The number of international conferences held annually is one of the significant phases of this movement. The layman is somewhat surprised when he becomes acquainted with the number and the character of these international gatherings.

During the year 1929 the Federal Government of the United States accepted invitations and sent representatives to forty-nine world congresses of one kind or another. Up-to-date during the year 1930, thirty-six out of one hundred invitations have been accepted and representatives are being sent to attend world conferences. As far as the Government is concerned the movement occupies all the time of one division of the State department; namely, the division on International Conferences and Protocol.

When nations learn to know each other through association, communication, and common understanding, world peace will thus be hastened.

By January 1, 1931, Miss Caroline Bengtson of Chicago hopes to have ready for the publisher the results of five years of intensive study of teacher unionization. The material is based upon the publications of the American Federation of Teachers, Reports of the United States Office of Education, official data from organizations of teachers, and first-hand knowledge of school conditions in Chicago. The first teachers' union was chartered in Chicago in 1902 and the American Federation of Teachers was organized in 1916. Extravagant claims of tangible and spiritual benefits are difficult to substantiate.

Professor M. Wesley Roper has been made head of the department of sociology and economics of the Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia to take the place of Professor T. B. Ross who has resigned to enter business.

Associate Professor L. A. Cook has been granted a year's leave of absence (1930-1931). Professor Cook will continue his graduate study at Ohio State University where he has received a teaching scholarship.

Professor Leslie D. Zeleny of the State Teachers College of St. Cloud, Minnesota, was on the summer-school staff at the University of Minnesota teaching Dr. Finney's classes in educational sociology.

Professor Joseph K. Hart of the department of philosophy in the University of Wisconsin has resigned his position to accept a similar one at Vanderbilt University.

Catherine Bower, principal of Junior High School 60, Manhattan, was recently promoted to the position of district superintendent, New York City, Board of Education.

Dr. Truman L. Kelly, professor of educational sociology since 1926, has accepted an appointment as professor of education in the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University. Dr. Kelly is known as one of the most prominent scholars in the field of statistical and experimental study in education.

President A. O. Bowden of New Mexico State Teachers College gave a series of lectures in the summer school of the New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts, State College, New Mexico, June 16-20. Later in the summer he was a member of the staff of the summer school of San Diego State College, giving a course in educational sociology.

Mr. Elmer K. Kilmer, who for the past several years has been head of the department of science of the Collegiate School, 241 West 77th Street, New York, New York, has resigned his position to accept an appointment as assistant professor of education in Bucknell University. For the past three years Mr. Kilmer has been engaged in graduate study in the School of Education, New York University.

Dr. A. Monroe Stowe of Randolph Macon College has offered courses in the summer school of Duke University on the problems of college education and on the philosophy of the democratic college education.

Professor Ross Finney of the department of educational sociology of the University of Maine, writes, "I am giving a new course entitled *The Social Heritage of the Individual*, and I am writing a new book on *Mutual Inter-dependence, Its Social and Educational Implications*. The readers of the JOURNAL will await Professor Finney's new book with great interest. Professor Finney taught during the past summer at the University of Idaho.

Dr. Henry Suzzallo, director of President Hoover's National Advisory Committee on Education, has terminated his services with this organization to assume the presidency of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Both Dr. Suzzallo and the Carnegie Foundation are to be congratulated upon this appointment.

Dr. E. George Payne, professor of educational sociology and assistant dean of the School of Education at New York University, gave a series of lectures before the summer session of the Teachers Colleges of both Greeley and Gunnison, Colorado.

Professor Frederick J. Simons of the State Normal School at Keene, New Hampshire, spent the past year in study and travel in England, Germany, and other continental countries.

Professor Clyde V. Moore of Cornell University offered courses at the summer session of Columbia University.

Dean Henry L. Smith of the School of Education of Indiana University is making his second trip to Europe featuring education with travel in a course on Comparative Education of Europe. Dean Smith believes that from an educational point of view travel and study may be very definitely and successfully coördinated so that the results to the student and teacher may be very much more valuable than the "hit and miss" bird's-eye view that so many get in visiting or traveling in Europe.

Professor Edwin E. Holden, head of the education department of Kansas State Agricultural College, was recently elected governor of the Eighth District Rotary International for the year 1930-1931.

Professor Frederic M. Thrasher, director of the Boys Club study work of the department of sociology of the School of Education, New York University, has spent the summer in Turkey and Russia as a representative of the Board of Directors of the American Friends of Turkey. This organization coöperates with the Turkish Government in promoting child welfare and is now carrying on a demonstration playground in the city of Angora.

Professor Caroll D. Clark is the recent new member of the staff of the department of sociology of the Connecticut Agricultural College, succeeding John F. Markey who resigned to become head of the department of sociology and economics at Wheaton College, Norton, Massachusetts.

Miss Josephine B. Ludlow of the Blewett Intermediate School, St. Louis, Missouri, has spent the past summer in Europe. She visited England, Belgium, Switzerland, Germany, Italy, and France, with a major point of interest being the Passion Play.

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Dr. William H. Kilpatrick is professor of the philosophy of education in Teachers College, Columbia University.

Mr. Henry M. Shulman is research director of the Sub-Commission on Causes of the New York State Crime Commission. He is a graduate of the University of Chicago and has pursued graduate studies in the department of psychology of Columbia University. He has been lecturer on criminology at Seth Low Junior College and is visiting assistant in psychology on the faculty of the Post-Graduate Hospital and Medical School. His research publications are: *A Study of Delinquency in Two Rural Areas*; *A Study of Delinquency in Kings County*; *Environmental Factors in Juvenile Delinquency*; *From Truancy to Crime, a Study of 251 Adolescents*; *Problem Boys and Brothers*; *Crime and the Community*.

Miss Mapheus Smith received her bachelor's degree from Southwestern Presbyterian University, her A.M. from Vanderbilt. She has had considerable experience as a teacher of history and is at present at Vanderbilt completing her work for the doctorate in sociology.

